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ABSTRACT

A study examined occupational sex-role stereotyping among sixth-grade students. The study sample consisted of 191 sixth-grade students (95 males and 96 females). The students completed demographic and stereotyping questionnaires that were designed to identify correlations between students' sex-role stereotyping and the following variables: gender, parents' socioeconomic status, mother's employment outside the home, mother's level of education, father's level of education, family structure, and nationality. Parents' socioeconomic status, gender, and nationality were all found to be statistically significant at the .05 level. Students who received free lunches reported more occupational sex-role stereotyping than did students who paid reduced prices for lunches, and students paying full prices for lunches manifested the least occupational sex-role stereotyping. Male students reported more occupational sex-role stereotyping than female students did, and Hispanic students reported more occupational sex-role stereotyping than did students belonging to other racial/ethnic groups. No associations were found between level of occupational sex-role stereotyping and the following variables: mother's employment outside the home, parents' level of education, and family structure. (Contains 56 references. Appended are the following: demographic sheet; occupational sex role stereotyping questionnaire; instruction sheet; and letters requesting/granting permission.) (MN)

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ED 396 163

OCCUPATIONAL SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING IN SIXTH GRADE STUDENTS

being

A Thesis Presented to the Graduate Faculty
of the Fort Hays State University in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Master of Science

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Graduate Committee Approval

The Thesis Committee of Brenda K. Morgison hereby approves her thesis as meeting partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Science.

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Abstract

The purpose of the researcher was to investigate occupational sex-role stereotyping in sixth grade students. The independent variables were: gender, socioeconomic status of the parents, mother's employment outside the home, mother's level of education, father's level of education, family structure, and nationality. The dependent variable was scores from the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire. The sample consisted of 191 sixth grade students, 95 males and 96 females. Six composite null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. Each composite null hypothesis was tested employing three-way analysis of variance (general linear model).

A total of 25 comparisons plus 18 recurring were made. Of the 25 comparisons, 7 were for main effects and 18 were for interactions. Of the 7 main effects, 3 were statistically significant at the .05 level. The following main effects were statistically significant:

1. the main effect socioeconomic status of parents,
2. the main effect gender, and
3. the main effect nationality.

The results indicated the following for main effects:

1. students who received free lunches reported statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than students who paid reduced prices for lunches, and those who paid full prices for lunches had the least

occupational sex-role stereotyping,

2. male students reported statistically more occupational sex-role sterotyping than female students, and

3. Hispanic students reported statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than those classified as other.

None of the 18 interactions was statistically significant at the .05 level.

The results of the present study appeared to support the following generalizations:

(1) students who received free lunches have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than those who pay reduced prices for lunches, and those who pay full prices for lunches have the least occupational sex-role stereotyping,

(2) male students have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than female students,

(3) Hispanic students have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than students classified as other (Asian, Black, and Native American),

(4) no association between status of mother's employment outside the home and occupational sex-role stereotyping,

(5) no association between mother's level of education and occupational sex-role stereotyping,

(6) no association between father's level of education and occupational sex-role stereotyping, and

(7) no association between family structure and occupational sex-role stereotyping.

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Introduction

Overview

Historically, the division of labor as manifested by sex-role stereotyping and assignments of status on the basis of sex have been present in all societies. According to Albrecht (1976), traditional sex-role appointments had been transmitted from generation to generation through the socialization process. While some occupations within society were strongly male dominated, others were mainly occupied by women. The foundation for this division of labor along gender lines was complex and involved a variety of causes (Feather & Said, 1983).

Social Learning Models (e.g., Mischel, 1966, cited by Tremaine, Schau, & Busch, 1982) recognized exposure over time to the environmental forces of various reinforcement and modeling, rather than cognitive maturity, as the principal mechanism of learning roles; chronological age was simply a measure of the amount of exposure. Older children, therefore, differed in their beliefs and attitudes regarding occupational sex-role stereotyping due to longer exposure to cultural norms and other influences over time (Tremaine, Schau, & Busch).

Kohlberg (1966, cited in O'Keefe & Hyde, 1983) proposed that the basis for sex-role learning was found in the child's cognitive development. Gender associations and behaviors were the result of qualitative and structural changes in the development of increasingly complex

classification systems which influenced how the categories of jobs and gender were organized and interrelated (Tremaine, Schau, & Busch, 1982).

According to Feather & Said (1983), whatever the reasons for sex labeling of occupations, the division of labor by gender had a pervasive effect on attitudes and expectations so that people developed widespread stereotypes about what occupations were best suited to men and to women. These stereotypes may effect judgments and behaviors, usually in the direction of perpetuating the system (Feather and Said, 1983).

Women's career options vary according to the different societies in which they live. Generally, these options are affected by various combinations of social, political, cultural, and economic forces. In the United States, the official posture of the government advocated the ideology of equality of women (Chusmir, 1983). The Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Title VII) has reduced job discrimination in theory, but women's status in the work force has not changed as dramatically as expected (Chusmir, 1983; Cook, 1993; Evans, 1975; Fottler & Bain, 1980; Gerstein, Lichtman, & Barokas, 1988; Waldman, 1985). Census data for 1985 reflected that although women had actually achieved higher representation in many occupations, there remained an overwhelming concentration of women in female-dominant occupations (New York Times, July 26, 1987, cited in Gerstein, Lichtman, & Barokas, 1988).

Socialization has managed to not only inhibit the development of many women to their fullest potential, but also to limit the nation's interest in the maximum utilization of human resources. Much of the human capital found among able women is still being either ignored or used selectively. A better understanding of the societal factors that influence the career decisions of capable women is needed if more competent and intelligent women are to seek training and employment in the full spectrum of professional fields (O'Donnell & Andersen, 1978).

Gender and Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

Fox and Renas (1977, cited in Chusmir, 1983) contended that career choices started with a combination of four factors that form an individual's career aspirations: (a) environmental stimuli such as books and advertising, (b) the educational system, (c) vocational helpers such as parents and counselors, and (d) personal characteristics. These combined to create a person's self-perception that in turn influenced career aspirations. Career choice, then, was a very complicated process (Chusmir, 1983).

Good, Gilbert, and Scher (1990) concluded that numerous obstacles prevent women from equal access to higher paying, more prestigious careers. Lack of sufficient support for persistence in mathematics, science, and computer courses that are prerequisites for entrance into many of the best career opportunities in society was one major obstacle for women (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987, cited by Good, Gilbert, &

Scher, 1990). Another barrier for women seeking entry into higher education and business settings was the lack of adequate mentors and role models (Douvan, 1976). According to Betz & Fitzgerald (1987, cited by Good, Gilbert, & Scher, 1990), women also frequently faced conflicts between establishing career priorities and taking care of family responsibilities, as well as encountering unrealistic societal and personal expectations for being super women. Additionally, many women still held on to the traditional view that women's primary role was in the home (Broschart, 1979). Others maintained it was proper to work but only if they fulfilled their role as wife and mother. Because of this dual duty women often chose less demanding jobs, jobs with fewer educational prerequisites, and jobs in which work could be interrupted as family demands occurred (Chusmir, 1983). According to Broschart (1979), most women avoided the conflict of combining home responsibilities and demanding but rewarding careers by setting priorities and putting family first. This effort to avoid dual role conflict discouraged many women from pursuing high status, male-dominated careers (Chusmir, 1983).

Nontraditional occupations for women, according to the U.S. Women's Bureau (1978, cited in Chusmir, 1983), were those that had less than 30% women working in that particular field and included specific jobs such as construction trades, skilled crafts, technical fields, and professions in science, law, engineering, and medicine.

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These careers were gender atypical, and may have been seen by society as gender inappropriate (Chusmir, 1990).

U.S. Bureau of the Census (1994) showed that although 74% of the female population ages 25-54 were in the work force (in 1991), the majority continued to work in traditional fields. While females (in 1993) held 10% of the chemical engineering positions in the United States, they held 85.9% of the elementary school teaching positions and 98.9% of the secretarial positions, respectively. The findings suggested that male-dominant occupational categories may remain with exceptions for only a few specific careers.

Nontraditional occupations for men included the four overwhelmingly female-dominated careers held by more than 50% of all working women (Chusmir, 1983; Chusmir, 1990): social work, nursing, elementary school teaching, and office work. Men working in these so-called "feminine" fields (Haemmerlie, Abdul-Wakeel, & Pomeroy, 1985) were likely effected by prejudice or ridicule to an even greater degree than women who chose careers in "masculine" fields (Hayes, 1986).

While societal disapproval and sex-related discrimination on the job are an accepted fact, more and more men are none-the-less choosing to enter female-dominated occupations. Hayes (1986) summarized reasons given by men for choosing nontraditional careers. The following reasons were cited: (a) the right to choose less

aggressive and stressful life-styles; (b) the freedom to pursue self-fulfilling personal abilities (c) greater stability and upward mobility, and (d) increased interaction with the opposite sex.

Factors associated with men who chose nontraditional careers were birth order, parental characteristics, race, age, and education (Chusmir, 1990). Lemkau (1984) reported that men in nontraditional careers, more often than those in traditional careers, were members of racial minorities, had more education, were more likely to have had distant relationships with their fathers, and were more often the product of a divorced family environment or had lost a parent or sibling when growing up.

Men in nontraditional careers differ considerably from their more traditional peers on a wide range of attitudes and values as well. Compared to men in traditional careers, men in nontraditional careers were found to be more nurturant, altruistic, and non-competitive (Robinson, 1986), and possessed a greater tender-minded emotional sensitivity (Lemkau, 1984). They also seemed to be inspired by a different set of motivational needs than females in nontraditional careers or males in traditional careers. Contrary to stereotypes, men in nontraditional careers generally were comfortable with themselves and their masculine sexuality and had well-balanced gender role identities (Chusmir, 1990).

The trend of men seeking jobs in female-dominated occupations is expected to increase in the future. New role models for men are growing alongside the old models, and men are exploring new options in their work environments, and paying more attention to their physical and emotional health (Kimmel, 1987; Pleck, 1985).

Men, however, are still more likely to lean towards their traditional choices of occupations than are women (Feather & Said, 1983). A possible explanation for this stronger "male pull" towards traditional careers may lie in differences in the way males and females are socialized.

Parental Influence on Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

Parents frequently discourage their children, especially their sons, from engaging in activities they consider appropriate for only the opposite sex. According to Feather and Said (1983), parents often concluded that 'feminine' behavior in a boy was likely to be interpreted as a sign of possible homosexual tendencies and, as such, was a warning signal that triggered powerful anxieties, perhaps especially in fathers .

Block (1976) summarized results of research in which parents gave different patterns of responses to boys and girls. Both parents stressed achievement and competition for boys, encouraged them to control their affect, were more concerned about punishment orientation, and emphasized more independence for sons than for daughters. Both parents maintained their relationship to daughters was characterized

by more warmth and physical closeness. They also had greater confidence in their daughter's trustworthiness and truthfulness; they showed greater reluctance to punish them; and they encouraged daughters to wonder and contemplate more about life. Mothers tended to restrict and supervise daughters more than sons (Block).

Fagot (1978) examined child behaviors to determine if the sex of the child or the actual behavior influenced parental reactions. Research results indicated that parents reacted more favorably to a child when the child was involved in same-sex-preferred behaviors and were more likely to give negative responses to cross-sex-preferred behaviors. Both parents gave girls more positive responses when they engaged in adult-oriented, dependent behavior and gave more negative responses when they were involved in active, large motor activities.

According to Fagot (1978), few parents would think of ordinary behaviors such as "manipulating objects" as behaviors important to sex-role socialization; yet girls were given more negative responses when engaged in such behaviors. Boys, then, were in effect, allowed to explore and learn about the physical environment with less chance of criticism than were girls. Girls, on the other hand, were given more positive feedback when they either asked for help or tried to help adults with tasks. If boys and girls are given differential feedback on the importance of exploration and dependence upon adults as young children, then it is not

too surprising that by middle school age, consistent differences in beliefs and attitudes concerning sex-role stereotyping and biases begin to emerge (Fagot,1978).

In the occupational sphere, the family is the first and foremost influence on aspirations, expectations, and opportunities. Auster & Auster (1981) examined research results accumulating over several decades and concluded that family influence on career choice was the result of a complex interplay of active and passive, formal and informal, sociological, psychological, and economic factors.

Passive influences included parental socioeconomic and occupational status, income, and education. Birth order and number and sex of siblings were also passive influences. Parents' attitudes, values, and behaviors concerning the occupational socialization of children were active influences that had more direct effects on career choice (Auster & Auster, 1981; Hughes, Martinek, & Fitzgerald, 1985).

The biases and stereotypes of parents are transmitted to children through encouragement (or lack thereof) toward some careers and through willingness to give financial support to some interests and not to others. Birk & Blimline (1984) concluded that parents who talked to their children about occupational goals and dreams were most often channeling them toward "sex-appropriate" goals. Parents may not realize the impact that these biases and stereotypes have on their children's eventual career choices. As

principal career development facilitators, parents frequently reinforce stereotypic career choices. In order for parents to encourage expansive thinking concerning career options in their children, their own imaginations may need to be stimulated and their understanding of appropriate options broadened (Birk & Blimline, 1984).

If adolescents and adults are to consider a wide range of occupational choices, and if career awareness is to become truly free of sex-role stereotyping, then early socialization patterns must change (Birk & Blimline, 1984). Holland (1974) emphasized the importance of childhood learning in the career development process. He advanced the notion that ideally, the most influential vocational strategy would be to change the life histories of people rather than revise career development interventions.

Hoyt (1979, cited in Birk and Blimline, 1984) conceptualized parents as equal partners with the educational system and community in the delivery of effective career education. Schergens (1980, cited in Birk and Blimline, 1984) suggested that parents should not only guide the career development experiences of their children, but should advocate for increased opportunities in the area of career education for all children.

According to Sandberg, Ehrhardt, Mellins, Ince, & Meyer-Bahlburg (1987), parents can potentially influence the development of career choices in children in many ways. They can either encourage or de-emphasize traditional sex-

role patterns. By serving as role models, parents may also set standards for their children's educational and occupational aspirations. Additionally, they can become actively involved in educating and exposing children to career options available (Sandberg, Ehrhardt, Mellins, Ince, & Meyer-Bahlburg).

Parents' Education/Employment and Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

Kutner and Brogan (1979, cited in Auster & Auster, 1981) provided data based on 179 female medical students indicating that their mother's employment and level of education inspired them to choose nontraditional careers. Research results of Rosen and Aneshensel's (1978) study of 3200 high school students indicated that the mother's level of education had a stronger relationship than did the father's level of education to a daughter's educational expectations.

According to Auster & Auster (1981), daughters with nontraditional careers usually had relatively close relationships with their fathers and many stated that they modeled themselves after the male parent. These women also indicated that their fathers (more than mothers) most prized their intellectual abilities.

Tomeh (1979) found that adolescent sons' attitudes toward women's employment were positively influenced if their own mother worked outside the home. Tomeh also concluded that the father's occupation was almost of equal

importance to the mother's in predicting the son's sex-role orientation. Father's level of education was, however, less important and was not in itself a sufficient predictor of sex-role orientation.

Findings by Standley and Soule (1974) revealed that at various times one parent was more influential than the other. While daughters perceived mothers as having the greatest influence on them when they were young children and as the parent they most needed as adults, fathers were viewed as role models and achievement-oriented supporters in a more limited and less intimate manner.

Socioeconomic Status, Birth Order, Number of Siblings, and Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

"If parental influence is one of the most active determinants of occupational choice, then family position in the stratification system is certainly the most salient passive factor" (Auster & Auster, 1981, p. 256). Socioeconomic status is the foundation from which a variety of important social, economic, and psychological factors emerges. These exert a tremendous influence on career choices of today's youth.

According to Psathas (1968, cited in Auster & Auster, 1981), family finances were likely to determine both the educational and occupational aspirations of many women. Families with a minimum of economic resources may perceive a daughter's higher education or career training as too expensive. If male siblings are present, they may be

perceived as requiring whatever resources are available (Auster & Auster, 1981, Rosen & Aneshensel, 1978). Marini (1978) found that boys and girls from high socioeconomic backgrounds were equally likely to have college plans and to attend college; but that boys from low socioeconomic backgrounds were much more likely to have college plans and to attend college than girls.

Birth order and number and sex of siblings are other factors often associated with career choice. Research results reported by Standley & Soule (1974) indicated that more than half of the women surveyed who had chosen nontraditional careers were the oldest or only child and three-fourths were the firstborn female sibling.

Marini (1978) found that, for males, the number of siblings affected status attainment in adulthood. Duncan (1972, cited in Marini, 1978, p. 738) stated that "On the basis of studies done in the United States, the number of siblings has a negative effect on educational attainment and thereby negatively affects occupational achievement."

Family Structure & Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

In truth, the "model" nuclear family can no longer be considered the norm. The majority of American children do not live in families with mother at home with the children and father working for a living (Friedan, 1979, cited in Romer, 1981). More women than ever are working outside the home and many of these women are providing primary income for their families (Romer, 1981).

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Nontraditional families may present children with differing viewpoints concerning family structure and the world of work (Carlson, 1984; Romer, 1981). A child with a mother working outside the home may tend to become more nontraditional in viewpoints on marriage, family, and career choice (Sandberg, Ehrhardt, Mellins, Ince, & Myer-Bahlburg, 1987).

According to Romer (1981), researchers have found that it was not necessary to have both a male and female parent in the home in order to have healthy psychosexual development of the child. Boys and girls who have a parent absent from the home can learn about sex-role orientation of the absent parent through examples provided by extended family, friends, neighbors, and television.

An increasing number of divorced couples are seeking joint custody of their children. This arrangement allows the child the opportunity to maintain close relationships with both parents. Single parent families and joint custody parenting tend to force parents to assume the jobs and responsibilities of both the traditional "mother" and "father" (Robinson, 1986; Romer, 1981). This sex-role cross-over may very well assist in the fight against sex-role stereotyping of gender orientation.

According to Marini (1978), socioeconomic status effected educational attainment, which in turn effected career aspirations and eventual career choice. The socioeconomic status of a single parent family may be

adversely affected by the constraints of one source of income. The number of siblings and birth order also appeared to be important factors in educational and career orientation and attainment of children in many families (Marini, 1978; Auster & Auster, 1981).

Children living in a nontraditional family are likely spending less time with a role-modeling parent which may eventually effect sex-role stereotyping of gender orientation. The old adage that it takes a whole village to raise a child appears to hold true today. "The best of all possible child-rearing circumstances seems to be multiple loving and available parent figures, contact with both males and females of many ages, and a variety of role models for the child" (Romer, 1981, p. 24).

Nationality & Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

According to Bingham & Ward (1994), by the year 2000 it is predicted that ethnic minorities will make up one-third of America's work force. The African-American work force is expected to increase by 29%; Hispanic by 72%; and the White work force by 15%. Women and minorities will likely make up a substantial portion of this work force.

President Bush's administration acknowledged a "glass ceiling" for the career attainment of women and minorities (Bingham & Ward, 1994). The glass ceiling was a concept used to describe a subtle barrier that was transparent, yet so strong that it prevented women and minorities from moving

up in the management hierarchy (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990).

Research results (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990) regarding minorities in management positions showed that in four hundred of the Fortune 1000 companies surveyed in 1986, less than 9% of all managers were minorities, including Blacks, Hispanics, and Asians. Discrimination occurred, at least in part, due to beliefs by White men that women and people of color were less suited for management positions than were White males. Whether consciously or unconsciously, differential treatment of women and minorities in management continued to impede their upward mobility (Morrison & Von Glinow).

An individual's knowledge of the world of work depends to a great extent on past work experiences and the degree of exposure to people working in a wide range of occupations. Traditionally, ethnic minorities have had very limited exposure to role models and mentors working in a variety of careers (Martin, 1991, cited in Bingham & Ward, 1994).

Cultural variables also impact career development of ethnic minority group members. Leong & Tata (1990) reported that some cultures tended to be more group/family oriented collectivistic people while others, Americans in particular, tended to be more individualistic. Super, Starishevsky, Matlin, & Jordaan (1963, cited in Leong & Tata, 1990) maintained that one's career choice was really an implementation of one's self-concept. This may not hold

true for persons from collectivistic cultures who may have self concepts that involve subordinating self-realization needs to group needs. Career options need to be broadened while still respecting cultural values. Bingham & Ward (1994) contended that counselors working with ethnic minorities needed to be sensitive to different cultural factors and work towards a better understanding in order to facilitate the counseling process.

Age & Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

Career development is a continuous, lifelong process, beginning at least as early as the elementary school years (Gottfredson, 1981; Hoffman & McDaniels, 1991; Navin & Sears, 1980; Remer & O'Neill, 1980; Seligman, Weinstock, & Heflin, 1991). The notion that the development of career choices begins at an early age has led to considerable research studies concerning occupational sex-role stereotyping among elementary school children (Barnhart, 1983; Hageman & Gladding, 1983; Looft, 1971; Miller & Stanford, 1987; O'Keefe & Hyde, 1983; Tremaine, Schau, & Busch, 1982).

Research results supported the notion that children's earliest knowledge regarding sex stereotypes occurred during the preschool period, and was further reinforced by experiences occurring during the first year or two of school (O'Keefe & Hyde, 1983; Williams, Bennett and Best, 1975). Kindergarten children displayed a substantial awareness concerning sex-role stereotyping. Developmental studies

have also indicated that the phenomenon of sex-role stereotyping of occupations in both males and females was most obvious during the first few years of elementary school and decreased with age (Looft, 1971; O'Keefe & Hyde, 1983; Tremaine, Schau, & Busch, 1982). Research results from Sandberg, Ehrhardt, Mellins, Ince, and Meyer-Bahlburg's (1987) longitudinal study of 68 middle-class girls (ages 8-18) also supported this notion.

According to Gottfredson (1981), children 6 to 8 years of age eliminated occupations they perceived as not gender appropriate. If this is the case, children in fourth and fifth grades have already eliminated many career options from their list. Since children's knowledge of sex-role stereotypes is not fully developed by fourth grade, however, additional knowledge must be acquired somewhere between the fifth grade and college (Williams, Bennett, & Best, 1975).

By sixth grade, boys are moving into adolescence. A search for identity and peer pressure to distinguish gender roles is often associated with this move. This pressure possibly influences boys to not only perceive some career options as inappropriate for themselves, but simultaneously to limit career choices for girls as well (Hageman & Gladding, 1983).

According to Hughes, Martinek, and Fitzgerald (1985), it was unfortunate that boys with high self-esteem continued to follow rigid stereotyping of sex roles, especially when they were likely to grow up to assume positions of

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responsibility in various occupations. Their attitudes toward women may have a negative impact not only on the career success and satisfaction of their female colleagues and subordinates, but also on their wives and daughters.

Summary

A comfortable position held today by many is that differences between the sexes are quickly disappearing and that in the near future people will be free to be themselves, regardless of biological sex (Cook, 1993). A review of the literature regarding occupational sex-role stereotyping over the past 25 years, however, indicated that gender-based sex-role orientation of society appears to be alive and well.

Many young people today are coming to realize that gender roles are not divinely ordained or unchangeable. They do not see themselves as bound by rules and expectations as many of their parents and grandparents did (Scher & Good, 1990). Changes in career and life patterns, however, have been slow in coming and will likely continue to move at a cautious pace (Cook, 1993).

Sex-role stereotyping cannot be overcome through enlightenment and education alone. These differences are interwoven into the very fiber of society (Cook, 1993). Variables considered in this review concerning occupational sex-role stereotyping were gender; parental influence; parent's education and employment; socioeconomic status,

birth order, and number of siblings; family structure; nationality; and age.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of the researcher was to investigate occupational sex-role stereotyping in sixth grade students.

Rationale and Importance of the Research

The process of career counseling needs to start in kindergarten and continue throughout the high school years. It is essential that those involved with the education and well-being of children become aware of what sex-role stereotyping is and how it effects a child's future educational and occupational aspirations and attainment. The child's whole environment must be involved in order to truly effect change. Counselors are in a position to initiate a career guidance program in their school if one is not presently in place.

Much research has been conducted on variables which relate to or affect occupational sex-role stereotyping. The women's movement has also helped break down barriers. An increasing number of women today are attending college or vocational training and are out in the work force. They often serve as role models for girls aspiring to eventually juggle careers and families themselves. Boys are quickly learning that "A woman's place is not necessarily in the home" and that is not only acceptable but in many cases is also desirable. These factors along with early

parent/teacher involvement and a good knowledge base can open up a multitude of career options for children.

The results of the present study could be used by elementary, middle, and high school teachers and counselors as well as others who work directly with children. By examining the results of the present study, teachers and counselors may gain some insight and knowledge into the importance and implications of sex-role stereotyping. The results could be used to build or improve existing career awareness units. The results of the present study provide a foundation for additional research.

The study contained more independent variables and in different combinations than was found in the related research; therefore, the outcome contributed to knowledge of these variables. The results of the present study provided information pertaining to the following questions:

1. Is there an association between gender and occupational sex-role stereotyping in sixth grade students?
2. Is there an association between the socioeconomic status of parents and occupational sex-role stereotyping of sixth grade students?
3. Is there an association between the mother's employment outside the home and occupational sex-role stereotyping of sixth grade students?
4. Is there an association between the mother's level

of education and occupational sex-role stereotyping of sixth grade students?

5. Is there an association between the father's level of education and occupational sex-role stereotyping of sixth grade students?

6. Is there an association between the family structure in which the student lives and occupational sex-role stereotyping of sixth grade students?

7. Is there an association between nationality and occupational sex-role stereotyping of sixth grade students?

Composite Null Hypotheses

All Hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

1. The differences among mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, socioeconomic status of parents, and mother's employment outside the home will not be statistically significant.

2. The differences among mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, socioeconomic status of parents, and mother's level of education will not be statistically significant.

3. The differences among mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, mother's employment outside the home, and mother's level of education will not be statistically significant.

4. The differences among mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to socioeconomic status of parents, mother's employment outside the home, and mother's level of education will not be statistically significant.

5. The differences among mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to family structure, father's level of education, and nationality will not be statistically significant.

6. The differences among mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, family structure, and nationality will not be statistically significant.

Definitions of Variables

Independent Variables

Information pertaining to the independent variables came from the Demographic Sheet. The following 7 independent variables were investigated:

gender - two levels;

level one - males, and

level two - females;

socioeconomic status of the parents - three levels determined post hoc;

level one - free lunch rate,

level two - reduced lunch rates, and

level three - full lunch rates;

mother's employment outside the home - three levels;

level one - full-time employment,

level two - part-time employment, and

level three - not employed;

mother's level of education - four levels determined post hoc;

level one - less than high school graduate,

level two - high school graduate,

level three - high school graduate and some college or training, and

level four - college degree or beyond;

father's level of education - four levels determined post hoc;

level one - less than high school graduate,

level two - high school graduate,

level three - high school graduate and some college or training, and

level four - college degree or beyond;

family structure - four levels determined post hoc;

level one -intact (biological mother and father),

level two - mother only,

level three - reconstituted (one biological and one step parent), and

level four - other; and

nationality - three levels determined post hoc;

level one - White,

level two - Hispanic, and

level three - other (Asian, Black and Native American).

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable was scores from the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping.

Limitations

The results of the study might have been affected by the following:

(1) sample was not random;

(2) subjects for the study were from one geographical location;

(3) all data were self-reported; and

(4) only grade six was included in the study.

Methodology

Setting

The study was conducted at a sixth grade center located in southwest Kansas. The community had a population of 21,129 according to the 1990 U.S. Government Official Census. There were a total of 227 students enrolled in grade 6 at the school surveyed. The primary source of income for the community is agriculture related industries.

Subjects

The researcher was given permission by the middle school principal to survey all students who selected to participate from the sixth grade center. All of the

students who were present when data were collected selected to participate.

A total of 191 usable copies of the questionnaire and 4 unusable copies were collected. The total sample consisted of 191 or 80% of the potential sample (total enrollment). The sample contained 95 males and 96 females.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were employed in the present study. The instruments were the Demographic Sheet and the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire.

Demographic Sheet. The Demographic Sheet was developed by Long (1994). It had questions that addressed the following areas: gender, socioeconomic status of the parents, mother's employment outside the home, mother's level of education, father's level of education, family structure, and nationality (Appendix A).

The Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping. The Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire consists of 35 items. Items for the inventory were adapted by Eichman (1987) from three studies; Bailey and Nihlen, Scheresky, and Kennedy. The questionnaire was then employed by Long (1994) in southwest Kansas. The questionnaire consists of a list of 35 occupations. The respondent had three options, "female only," "male only," or "both". The subjects were asked to indicate if they thought each of the 35 occupations was female, male, or for both sex-roles (Appendix B). The questionnaire was scored by giving 1 point for each "both"

not circled. The higher the score the greater the occupational sex-role stereotyping. The possible score was 0 to 35.

Design

A status survey factorial design was employed. The independent variables investigated were gender, socioeconomic status of the parents, mother's employment outside the home, mother's level of education, father's level of education, family structure, and nationality. The dependent variable was scores from the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping. Six composite null hypotheses were tested employing three-way analysis of variance (general linear model). The following design was used with each composite null hypothesis:

composite null hypothesis number 1, a 2x3x3 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 2, a 2x3x4 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 3, a 2x3x4 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 4, a 3x3x4 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 5, a 4x4x3 factorial design; and

composite null hypothesis number 6, a 2x4x3 factorial design.

McMillan and Schumacher (1989) cited 10 threats to internal validity. These 10 threats were dealt with in the following ways:

(1) history - did not pertain because the present study was status survey;

(2) selection - all students who were present, who consented to participate and presented completed instruments were included;

(3) statistical regression - did not pertain because the present study was status survey;

(4) testing - instruments were administered according to standard procedures;

(5) instrumentation - did not pertain because the present study was status survey;

(6) mortality - did not pertain because the present study was status survey;

(7) maturation - did not pertain because the present study was status survey;

(8) diffusion of treatment - did not pertain because the present study was status survey;

(9) experimental bias - no treatment was administered and data were collected by standard procedures; and

(10) statistical conclusion - two mathematical assumptions were violated (random sampling and equal numbers of subjects in cells). The general linear model was employed to correct for lack of equal numbers in cells,

and the researcher did not project beyond the procedures employed.

McMillan and Schumacher (1989) cited 2 threats to external validity. These 2 threats were dealt with in the following ways:

(1) population external validity - the sample was not random; therefore, generalizations should be made only to similar groups; and

(2) ecological external validity - no treatment was administered and data were collected by standard procedures.

Data Collecting Procedures

The principal was contacted, informed of the purpose of the research, and asked permission to collect data from students (Appendix D). Permission was granted to survey all students who selected to participate from grade 6 at the sixth grade center (Appendix E). The person who developed the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire was contacted, informed of the purpose of the research, and asked permission to use the questionnaire (Appendix D). Permission was granted to use and modify the questionnaire (Appendix E). The person who developed the Demographic Sheet was also contacted, informed of the purpose of the research, and asked permission to use the Demographic Sheet (Appendix D). Permission was granted to use and modify the Demographic Sheet (Appendix E).

The researcher determined the potential number of subjects to be surveyed. Numbered packages of the

Demographic Sheet (Appendix A) and the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire (Appendix B) were made for each student. Time arrangements were made with classroom teachers prior to administering the instruments.

As the packages were distributed (face-down) by the student assistant, the researcher read the instructions to each group of students (Appendix C). At the completion of the reading, the researcher instructed the students to turn the instruments over. The researcher verbally went through the items on the Demographic Sheet with each group of students surveyed. Directions for the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire were also read. The researcher administered the instruments to the students in each of the classes to be surveyed. All students chose to participate in the study. They were instructed to place the instruments face down when completed.

Additional instructions were given to each group concerning the independent variable nationality, due to students who questioned how to answer if they were bi-racial. Students were instructed to mark biological father's nationality.

The researcher collected the instruments as they were completed and checked them over briefly for completeness. Information was taken from those copies of the questionnaires that were complete and employed in compiling a data sheet. The data were analyzed by main frame computer at Fort Hays State University.

Research Procedures

The researcher implemented the following steps:

(1) research topic was selected;

(2) thesis adviser was contacted and permission given to conduct exploratory study;

(3) arrangements were made with the school to participate;

(4) arrangements were made for collecting data;

(5) computer searches were made using ERIC, Education Index, Psychology Abstracts, Sociofile, Thesis Abstracts and Dissertation Abstracts;

(6) research proposal was compiled;

(7) research proposal defended before thesis committee;

(8) data were collected;

(9) data were analyzed;

(10) total thesis written;

(11) thesis defended before thesis committee; and

(12) final edition of thesis.

Data Analysis

The following were compiled:

(1) appropriate descriptive statistics,

(2) three-way analysis of variance (general linear model),

(3) Bonferrion (Dunn) t test for means, and

(4) Duncans multiple range test for means.

Results

The purpose of the researcher was to investigate occupational sex-role stereotyping in sixth grade students.

The independent variables were: gender, socioeconomic status of the parents, mother's employment outside the home, mother's level of education, father's level of education, family structure, and nationality. The dependent variable was scores from the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire. The sample consisted of 191 sixth grade students, 95 males and 96 females. Six composite null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. Each composite null hypothesis was tested employing three-way analysis of variance (general linear model). The following design was used with each composite null hypothesis:

composite null hypothesis number 1, a 2x3x3 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 2, a 2x3x4 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 3, a 2x3x4 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 4, a 3x3x4 factorial design;

composite null hypothesis number 5, a 4x4x3 factorial design; and

composite null hypothesis number 6, a 2x4x3 factorial design.

The results section was organized according to composite null hypotheses for ease of reference. Information

pertaining to each null hypothesis was presented in a common format for ease of comparison.

It was hypothesized in composite null hypothesis number 1 that the differences among the mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, socioeconomic status of parents, and mother's employment outside the home will not be statistically significant. Information pertaining to composite null hypothesis number 1 was presented in Table 1. The following were cited in Table 1: variables, group sizes, means, standard deviations, F values, and p levels.

Table 1: A Comparison of Mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping Scores of Sixth Grade Students According to Gender, Socioeconomic Status of Parents, and Mother's Employment Outside the Home Employing a Three-Way Analysis of Variance (general linear model)

Variable	n	M*	s	F value	p level
Gender (A)					
male	95	12.1	7.23	2.20	.1400
female	96	8.5	6.34		
Socioeconomic Status of Parents (B)					
free lunch rates	78	11.6[g]	6.92		
reduced lunch rates	24	10.2[h]	6.95	3.35	.0373
full lunch rates	89	9.2[i]	7.01		
Mother's Employment Outside the Home (C)					
full time	104	10.0	7.00		
part time	39	10.8	7.61	0.80	.4519
not employed	48	10.6	6.66		
	Interactions				
	A x B			0.61	.5463
	A x C			1.31	.2718
	B x C			0.76	.5503
	A x B x C			0.93	.4461

*The larger the value, the greater the sex-role stereotyping (possible scores 0-35).
[ghi]Difference statistically significant at the .05 level.

One of the 7 p values was statistically significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis for this comparison was rejected. The statistically significant comparison was for the main effect socioeconomic status of parents. The results cited in Table 1 indicated that

students who received free lunches had statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than students who paid reduced prices for lunches, and those who paid full prices for lunches had the least occupational sex-role stereotyping.

It was hypothesized in composite null hypothesis number 2 that the differences among the mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, socioeconomic status of parents, and mother's level of education will not be statistically significant. Information pertaining to composite null hypothesis number 2 was presented in Table 2. The following were cited in Table 2: variables, group sizes, means, standard deviations, F values, and p levels.

Table 2: A Comparison of Mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping Scores of Sixth Grade Students According to Gender, Socioeconomic Status of Parents, and Mother's Level of Education Employing a Three-Way Analysis of Variance (general linear model)

Variable	n	M*	s	F value	p level
Gender (A)					
male	95	12.1	7.23	3.13	.0785
female	96	8.5	6.34		
Socioeconomic Status of Parents (B)					
free lunch rates	78	11.6	6.92		
reduced lunch rates	24	10.2	6.95	1.99	.1399
full lunch rates	89	9.2	7.01		
Mother's Level of Education (D)					
1**	49	10.3	6.39		
2	56	10.9	6.48	0.51	.6753
3	59	10.4	8.02		
4	27	8.8	7.02		
Interactions					
A x B				1.50	.2271
A x D				0.55	.6470
B x D				0.52	.7960
A x B x D				0.75	.5862

*The larger the value, the greater the sex-role stereotyping (possible scores 0-35).
**1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = some college or training, 4 = college degree or beyond.

None of the 7 p values was statistically significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypotheses for these comparisons were retained. The results cited in Table 2

indicated no additional associations between independent variables and the dependent variable.

It was hypothesized in composite null hypothesis number 3 that the differences among the mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, mother's employment outside the home, and mother's level of education will not be statistically significant. Information pertaining to composite null hypothesis number 3 was presented in Table 3. The following were cited in Table 3: variables, group sizes, means, standard deviations, F values, and p levels.

Table 3: A Comparison of Mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping Scores of Sixth Grade Students According to Gender, Mother's Employment Outside the Home, and Mother's Level of Education Employing a Three-Way Analysis of Variance (general linear model)

Variable	n	M*	s	F value	p level
Gender (A)					
male	95	12.1[a]	7.23	7.68	.0062
female	96	8.5[b]	6.34		
Mother's Employment Outside the Home (C)					
full time	104	10.0	7.00		
part time	39	10.8	7.61	0.08	.9211
not employed	48	10.6	6.66		
Mother's Level of Education (D)					
1**	49	10.3	6.39		
2	56	10.9	6.48	0.54	.6538
3	59	10.4	8.02		
4	27	8.8	7.02		
Interactions					
A x C				1.01	.3682
A x D				0.64	.5910
C x D				1.62	.1431
A x C x D				1.17	.3280

*The larger the value, the greater the sex-role stereotyping (possible scores 0-35).
**1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = some college or training, 4 = college degree or beyond.
[ab]Difference statistically significant at the .05 level according to Bonferroni (Dunn) t test for means.

One of the 7 p values was statistically significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis for this comparison was rejected. The statistically significant comparison was for the main effect gender. The results

cited in Table 3 indicated that male students reported statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than female students.

It was hypothesized in composite null hypothesis number 4 that the differences among the mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to socioeconomic status of parents, mother's employment outside the home, and mother's level of education will not be statistically significant. Information pertaining to composite null hypothesis number 4 was presented in Table 4. The following were cited in Table 4: variables, group sizes, means, standard deviations, F values, and p levels.

Table 4: A Comparison of Mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping Scores of Sixth Grade Students According to Socioeconomic Status of Parents, Mother's Employment Outside the Home, and Mother's Level of Education Employing a Three-Way Analysis of Variance (general linear model)

Variable	n	M*	s	F value	p level
Socioeconomic Status of Parents (B)					
free lunch rates	78	11.6[g]	6.92		
reduced lunch rates	24	10.2[h]	6.95	4.68	.0107
full lunch rates	89	9.2[i]	7.01		
Mother's Employment Outside the Home (C)					
full time	104	10.0	7.00		
part time	39	10.8	7.61	1.06	.3495
not employed	48	10.6	6.66		
Mother's Level of Education (D)					
1**	49	10.3	6.39		
2	56	10.9	6.48	0.88	.4532
3	59	10.4	8.02		
4	27	8.8	7.02		
Interactions					
B x C				0.87	.4819
B x D				1.21	.3019
C x D				1.36	.2356
B x C x D				0.94	.4917

*The larger the value, the greater the sex-role stereotyping (possible scores 0-35).
**1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = some college or training, 4 = college degree or beyond.
[ghi]Difference statistically significant at the .05 level.

One of the 7 p values was statistically significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis for this

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comparison was rejected. The statistically significant comparison was for the main effect socioeconomic status of parents (recurring, Table 1). The results cited in Table 4 indicated no additional associations between independent variables and the dependent variable.

It was hypothesized in composite null hypothesis number 5 that the differences among the mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to family structure, father's level of education, and nationality will not be statistically significant. Information pertaining to composite null hypothesis number 5 was presented in Table 5. The following were cited in Table 5: variables, group sizes, means, standard deviations, F values, and p levels.

Table 5: A Comparison of Mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping Scores of Sixth Grade Students According to Family Structure, Father's Level of Education, and Nationality Employing a Three-Way Analysis of Variance (general linear model)

Variable	n	M*	s	F value	p level
Family Structure (E)					
intact	107	9.9	7.10		
mother only	24	11.0	6.30	0.40	.7507
reconstituted	41	10.9	6.64		
other	19	10.4	8.47		
Father's Level of Education (F)					
1**	61	11.4	6.48		
2	56	11.0	6.96	0.36	.7812
3	49	9.6	7.08		
4	25	7.4	7.75		
Nationality (G)					
White	115	9.5	7.05		
Hispanic	65	12.4[a]	6.71	3.15	.0455
other	11	6.8[b]	5.71		
Interactions					
E x F				0.65	.7555
E x G				0.84	.5021
F x G				0.49	.7400
E x F x G				0.92	.4687

*The larger the value, the greater the sex-role stereotyping (possible scores 0-35).
**1 = less than high school, 2 = high school graduate, 3 = some college or training, 4 = college degree or beyond.
[ab]Difference statistically significant at the .05 level according to Bonferroni (Dunn) t test for means.

One of the 7 p values was statistically significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis for this comparison was rejected. The statistically significant

comparison was for the main effect nationality. The results cited in Table 5 indicated that Hispanic students reported statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than those classified as other (Asian, Black, and Native American).

It was hypothesized in composite null hypothesis number 6 that the differences among the mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping scores of sixth grade students according to gender, family structure, and nationality will not be statistically significant. Information pertaining to composite null hypothesis number 6 was presented in Table 6. The following were cited in Table 6: variables, group sizes, means, standard deviations, F values, and p levels.

Table 6: A Comparison of Mean Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping Scores of Sixth Grade Students According to Gender, Family Structure, and Nationality Employing a Three-Way Analysis of Variance (general linear model)

Variable	n	M*	s	F value	p level
Gender (A)					
male	95	12.1[a]	7.23	8.63	.0038
female	96	8.5[b]	6.34		
Family Structure (E)					
intact	107	9.9	7.10		
mother only	24	11.0	6.30	0.01	.9993
reconstituted	41	10.9	6.64		
other	19	10.4	8.47		
Nationality (G)					
White	115	9.5	7.05		
Hispanic	65	12.4[a]	6.71	3.60	.0294
other	11	6.8[b]	5.71		
Interactions					
A x E				2.03	.1113
A x G				0.03	.9714
E x G				0.31	.9063
A x E x G				1.58	.1830

*The larger the value, the greater the sex-role stereotyping (possible scores 0-35).
[ab]Difference statistically significant at the .05 level according to Bonferroni (Dunn) t test for means.

Two of the 7 p values were statistically significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypotheses for these comparisons were rejected. The following comparisons were statistically significant:

1. The main effect gender (recurring, Table 3).
2. The main effect nationality (recurring, Table 5).

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Results cited in Table 6 indicated no additional associations between independent variables and the dependent variable.

Discussion

Summary

The purpose of the researcher was to investigate occupational sex-role stereotyping in sixth grade students. The independent variables were: gender, socioeconomic status of the parents, mother's employment outside the home, mother's level of education, father's level of education, family structure, and nationality. The dependent variable was scores from the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping questionnaire. The sample consisted of 191 sixth grade students, 95 males and 96 females. Six composite null hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance. Each composite null hypothesis was tested employing three-way analysis of variance (general linear model).

A total of 25 comparisons plus 18 recurring were made. Of the 25 comparisons, 7 were for main effects and 18 were for interactions. Of the 7 main effects, 3 were statistically significant at the .05 level. The following main effects were statistically significant:

1. the main effect socioeconomic status of parents,
2. the main effect gender, and
3. the main effect nationality.

The results indicated the following for main effects:

1. students who received free lunches reported

statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than students who paid reduced prices for lunches, and those who paid full prices for lunches had the least occupational sex-role stereotyping,

2. male students reported statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than female students, and

3. Hispanic students reported statistically more occupational sex-role stereotyping than those classified as other.

None of the 18 interactions was statistically significant at the .05 level.

Related Literature and the Results of the Present Study

The results of the present study supported research results reported by Auster and Auster (1981). Students, in both studies, from lower socioeconomic backgrounds tended to sex-role stereotype occupations more than those students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds.

The research results of the present study indicated that male students have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than female students. These research results supported findings reported by Feather & Said (1983) which indicated that males preferred gender-congruent occupations more than females. Present research results also supported research by Hageman and Gladding (1983) which indicated that by sixth grade, boys not only perceived some career options

as inappropriate for themselves, but simultaneously limited career choices for girls as well.

The results of the present study indicated that Hispanic students have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than those classified as other. Present research results supported research findings reported by Martin (1991, cited by Bingham & Ward, 1994) which indicated that minority children often lacked the role models and mentors necessary to encourage them to aspire toward nontraditional careers (Martin, 1991, cited by Bingham & Ward, 1994).

The results of the present study indicated that there was no association between status of mother's employment outside the home, mother's level of education, or father's level of education. These results did not support research results reported by O'Donnell & Anderson (1978) and Kutner and Brogan (1979, cited by Auster & Auster, 1981). Their results indicated that mother's employment and educational level inspired daughters to choose nontraditional careers. Additionally, O'Donnell & Anderson (1978) reported that male encouragement and identification with male role models strengthened the resolve of women surveyed to enter into male-dominated careers.

Research results of the present study found that there was no association between family structure and occupational sex-role stereotyping. These findings appear to support research results reported in Romer (1981) which indicated

that boys and girls who have a parent absent from the home learn about sex-role orientation of the absent parent through examples provided by extended family, friends, neighbors, and television.

Generalizations

The results of the present study appeared to support the following generalizations:

(1) students who received free lunches have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than those who pay reduced prices for lunches, and those who pay full prices for lunches have the least occupational sex-role stereotyping,

(2) male students have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than female students,

(3) Hispanic students have more occupational sex-role stereotyping than students classified as other (Asian, Black, and Native American),

(4) no association between status of mother's employment outside the home and occupational sex-role stereotyping,

(5) no association between mother's level of education and occupational sex-role stereotyping,

(6) no association between father's level of education and occupational sex-role stereotyping, and

(7) no association between family structure and occupational sex-role stereotyping.

Implications

In order for children to pursue interests, develop talents, and grow to their full potential, they may need help in breaking away from traditional sex-role stereotyping. Schools may very well be assigned this task since the educational system remains a principal agent for socialization (Howe, 1971, cited by Barnhart, 1983).

The confusion that many high school students exhibit concerning career choices may be due to the lack of attention to career development at the elementary and middle school levels. According to Garrett, Ein, & Tremaine (1977, cited by Baily & Nihlen, 1989) a goal of career education, early on, should be to counteract the effects of sex-role stereotyping, by not only providing students with information about a variety of career options, but also by including nontraditional workers as role models.

Healy (1982) found that young children may need to personalize career information in order to add meaning and understanding. According to Baily & Nihlen (1989), curriculum that supported both receiving and sharing knowledge was vital. Providing opportunities for young children to establish rapport with nontraditional workers may open up career opportunity doors that might otherwise be closing.

Student-teacher interaction is also a determinate in children's attitudes and beliefs concerning sex-role stereotyping. Sadker and Sadker (1985, cited in Feldhusen &

Willard-Holt, 1993) found that teachers often responded differently to boys and girls in classroom situations. Boys tended to dominate classroom interactions and teachers accepted this dominance. Serbin and O'Leary (1975, cited in Feldhusen and Willard-Holt, 1993) found that teachers usually gave boys more attention and feedback which encouraged thinking and self-direction. Girls, however, were more likely than not to be given solutions or answers and received little, if any, encouragement to become self-directed. Kerr (1991) pointed out that in class, girls are reinforced for accommodating, obliging behaviors - exactly the opposite of the behaviors required for success in business and other professional situations.

School counselors need to be more active in providing inservice training for classroom teachers (Barnhart, 1983). They can also provide parents with the knowledge base necessary to become informed career development facilitators. School counselors can join in partnership with parents in order to broaden career exploration, expand career planning, and influence career decisions of children (Birk & Blimline, 1984).

There is, however, the potential resistance of some parents to sex-discrepant career guidance. Some parents may look at even the suggestion that their son become a nurse or teacher or that their daughter become a police officer or scientist as an implication concerning the child's masculinity or femininity. Career counseling with an

androgynous orientation still operates in a society in which parents, peers, school personnel, the mass media, and others involved with the well-being and education of children often still cling to traditional sex-role and occupational stereotypes (Auster & Auster, 1981). Counselors, therefore, need to consider personality, family, and social environmental influences when working with families (Chusmir, 1990).

To truly effect change, the child's whole environment must be involved. A carefully planned system of effective career development must include regular follow-up. The planning and hard work are worth the effort when the alternatives are considered. With occupational sex-role stereotyping, both sexes lose (Hageman & Gladding, 1983).

Recommendations

The results of the present study appeared to support the following recommendations:

(1) the study should be replicated employing a random sample grades K-12,

(2) the study should be replicated in a variety of geographical areas,

(3) the variable nationality should be investigated in greater detail, and

(4) the study should be replicated investigating sibling relationships.

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BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Appendix A

Demographic Sheet

Demographic Sheet

Please place a check next to the item which best describes you in each of the questions.

1. Gender: _____ Male _____ Female

2. Do you receive special lunch rates?

_____ free lunch rate _____ reduced lunch rates
_____ full lunch rates

3. Is your mother presently working outside the home, either full-time or part-time?

_____ full-time _____ not employed
_____ part-time

4. Parents' education: Check highest level completed.

Mother		Father
_____	..... Less than high school	_____
_____	..... High school graduate	_____
_____	..... Some college or training beyond high school	_____
_____	..... College degree or beyond ..	_____

5. Family Structure:

_____ Intact (living with biological mother and father)
_____ Mother only _____ Father only
_____ Mother & stepfather _____ Father & step-mother
_____ Grandparents _____ Foster parents

6. Nationality:

_____ White _____ Hispanic _____ Asian

_____ Native American _____ African American

Appendix B

Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping

OCCUPATIONAL SEX-ROLE STEREOTYPING

Occupations for men and women. Circle "FEMALE ONLY" if you think the occupation is for women. Circle "MALE ONLY" if you think the occupation is for men. Circle the word "BOTH" if you think the occupation is for both females and males.

1.	Zookeeper	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
2.	Fashion designer	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
3.	Astronaut	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
4.	Chemical engineer	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
5.	Singer	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
6.	Professional athlete	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
7.	News broadcaster	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
8.	Baker	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
9.	Business secretary	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
10.	Librarian	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
11.	Computer programmer	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
12.	School teacher	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
13.	Truck driver	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
14.	Tennis Player	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
15.	Firefighter	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
16.	Model	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
17.	Police officer	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
18.	Veterinarian	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
19.	Doctor	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
20.	Mechanic	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
21.	Farmer	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
22.	Scientist	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
23.	Carpenter	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
24.	Store clerk	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
25.	Mail carrier	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
.	Airplane pilot	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
.7.	Lawyer	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
28.	Florist	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
29.	Nurse	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
30.	Heavy equipment operator	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
31.	Medical technician	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
32.	Bus driver	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
33.	Custodian	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
34.	School superintendent	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH
35.	Salesperson	FEMALE ONLY	MALE ONLY	BOTH

Appendix C

Instructions

Instruction Sheet

My name is Ms. Morgison. I am a graduate student at Fort Hays State University. To complete partial requirements for the Degree of Masters of Science I am administering this questionnaire to use with other research for my thesis. As I read the instructions, (student's name) will be placing a work package on your desk. Please do not turn it over until instructed to do so.

The purpose of the researcher is to investigate occupational sex-role stereotyping in sixth grade students. The Demographic Sheet and attached questionnaire is part of the research. Your cooperation in this study will contribute vital information. Your responses are completely confidential and cannot be identified with you personally. If you have questions, you may raise your hand and ask for assistance. You have the right to not participate. If you choose not to participate, please remain seated quietly and place your package face down. Your questionnaire will be picked up with the rest of the students. If you select to participate, you must answer all questions on both instruments in order for it to be used in the research. I will look over each questionnaire briefly when collecting them. I will not be concerned with how you've answered the questions, only with whether or not both pages are complete.

You may now turn your package over. (Go through demographic sheet and questionnaire.) Please place a check next to the item which best describes you in each question

of the Demographic Sheet. On the Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping instrument, circle "Female Only" if you think the occupation is for women, circle "Male only" if you think it is for males and "Both" if you think the occupation is for both female and male. When you have finished, please place the instrument face down and I will collect them. Thank you for your participation.

Additional instructions were given for the independent variable, Nationality, due to questions from several bi-racial students concerning this issue. Students were instructed to please mark biological father's nationality in order to assure uniformity.

Appendix D

Letters Requesting Permission

800 Kelley
Dodge City, KS 67801
(316) 225-6154
April 22, 1995

Mr. Blaine Babb
Principal
Dodge City Middle School
2000 Sixth Ave.
Dodge City, KS 67801

Dear Mr. Babb:

My name is Brenda K. Morgison and I am a graduate student at Fort Hays State University. I am writing a thesis as a partial requirement for a master's degree in counseling. In order to complete the research, I am requesting your assistance to obtain the pertinent data.

The topic of the thesis is Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping in Sixth Grade Students. A questionnaire will be administered to students at the sixth grade level. I would ask that the survey be administered to each of the eight sixth grade classes at Hennessey Hall.

To ensure anonymity, I will ask that students please not put their name on the instrument. The highest level of confidentiality will be observed. A copy of the final study will be placed in the Fort Hays State University Library.

In addition to the questionnaire, students will be asked to fill out a demographic sheet. I have enclosed copies of each of these forms for you to preview. The entire process will require approximately 15 minutes of class time.

At this time, I am asking for permission to have this survey administered at Hennessey Hall. If you have any questions, please contact me.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Brenda K. Morgison

April 22, 1995

Lavonda Eichman
613 W. Cedar
Dodge City, Kansas 67801

Dear Ms. Eichman:

I am a graduate student at Fort Hays State University, and I am writing a thesis as a partial requirement for a master's degree in counseling. Currently, I am working on my thesis: Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping in Sixth Grade Students.

I would like permission to use your survey instrument Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping which you developed for your Master's Degree Thesis. I would also ask your permission to alter the survey items if deemed necessary to meet the needs of my research.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Brenda K. Morgison

800 Kelley
Dodge City, KS 67801

800 Kelley
Dodge City, KS 67801

April 22, 1995

Maribeth Long
803 N. 1st
Cimarron, KS 67835

Dear Mrs. Long:

I am a graduate student at Fort Hays State University, and I am writing a thesis as a partial requirement for a master's degree in counseling. Currently, I am working on my thesis: Occupational Sex-Role Stereotyping in Sixth Grade Students.

I would like permission to use the Demographic Sheet which you developed for your master's degree thesis. I would also ask your permission to alter the survey items if deemed necessary to meet the needs of my research.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Brenda K. Morgison

Appendix E

Letters Granting Permission

Dodge City Middle School

2000 Sixth Avenue • Dodge City, KS 67801 • 227-1610

Blaine Babb
Principal

Herb McPherson
Assistant Principal

Greg Preston
Assistant Principal

April 27, 1995

Ms. Brenda K. Morgison
800 Kelley
Dodge City, Kansas 67801

Dear Ms. Morgison:

You have my permission to administer the questionnaire and demographic sheet to the eight classes of sixth graders at Hennessey Hall.

Please work with the teachers to set up a convenient time.

Sincerely,

Blaine Babb

Blaine Babb, Principal
Dodge City Middle School

BB/kr

April 25, 1995

Brenda K. Morgison
800 Kelley
Dodge City, KS 67801

Brenda,

I am writing in reference to your letter dated April 22, 1995, concerning the Occupational Sex-Stereotyping instrument I used in my thesis. You have my permission to use, and alter as needed, the Occupational Sex-Stereotyping instrument for your thesis research.

Please feel free to contact me if I can be of further assistance.

Sincerely,

Lavonda Eichman

Lavonda Eichman

April 28, 1995

Brenda Morgison
800 Kelley Ave.
Dodge City, KS 67801

Brenda,

I am writing in reference to your letter dated April 24, 1995, concerning the Demographic Sheet I used in my thesis. You have my permission to use, and alter as needed, the Demographic Sheet for your thesis research.

Please feel free to contact me if I can be of further assistance.

Sincerely,

Maribeth Long

Maribeth Long